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A Further Note on Military Instruction

By CHARLES H. WILSON

HAs school instruction something to learn from military instruction? The October issue of the EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH BULLETIN contains a review of military education designed to demonstrate that "the greatest example of what teaching can do has been shown by the Services."[1] As a point of view, the approach is interesting; as a final statement of truths, it is seriously open to question and deserves critical examination.

In the first place, it should be noted that any study of Army methods will necessarily be subjective. It is doubtful whether any comprehensive summary of military teaching techniques can be made, since there was a marked degree of autonomy among training units, not only among the larger components of infantry, armored forces, air forces, and the like, but among individual units of the components. What may apply to Station A may be completely incorrect when applied to Station B. Furthermore, what one observer notes at Station A, bringing to his observations his past experiences and prejudices, may vary markedly from what another observer notes at the same station.

The writer spent nearly four years with training units of the Army Air Forces, during most of which time he was an instructor and supervisor of training in the Officer Candidate School of the Technical Training Command. It is his belief that the Army, instead of profiting from the experience of public-school educators, went, in a short time, through the complete gamut of trials and errors experienced by professional school men during the past forty years or more. This is not an unqualified criticism of Army methods. The very fact that the Army may have done this is perhaps to its credit. The point is that the Services, in-

[1] Wilson, Robert E. "Military versus School Instruction," EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH BULLETIN, XXV (October 16, 1946), pp. 171–77.

stead of furnishing a model for professional educators, served, rather, as a mirror, reflecting, in condensed version, the history of modern education.

A brief sketch of the Officer Candidate School may illustrate what is meant by the statement that the Army used the trial-and-error method. When the school was organized in the early part of 1942, a group of officers, apparently selected with no purposeful objective, since it included few, if any, experienced teachers, were sent to Miami Beach. It is said that none of them knew his intended assignment. There were officers from the infantry, from national guard units, from newly created Air Force units, and others, with direct commissions recently acquired, from civilian life. At approximately the same time these officers arrived, students—the officer candidates—also appeared, ready for instruction. Using vacant shops and hotel lobbies, school was started immediately. The assignment of personnel is said to have bordered on the comic. It is related that because one man had been a butcher in civilian life, he was assigned to teach mess management; a former justice of the peace was put on military law; an erstwhile bus driver was assigned to transportation; a clothier was handed supply; and because one man had been an officer in his home-town chamber of commerce, he was assigned to teach military leadership. However apocryphal these cases may be, they at least illustrate two things: first, the dearth of qualified personnel available; and second, the attempt to channel individuals into lines compatible with their experience.

WHAT sort of school did these men set up? They set up the only kind of school they knew anything about. Six formal classes were organized, covering the major fields of administration, military law, mess management, supply, leadership, and intelligence. Textbooks were Army technical manuals, some woefully obsolete. The instruction was not unlike that which is commonly associated with the more extreme conventional public schools, entirely teacher dominated, with long lists of numbered data to be learned by rote. Rare indeed was the early graduate of the school who could not recite the ten rules for making coffee, the thirteen qualities of a good truck driver, or the twenty-four principles of leadership. Indeed, he must know them; for at the end of each course, an examination,

usually consisting of one hundred questions, determined whether or not a student became an officer. Points were totaled, students were rated from first to last, and little short of a miracle could save a low man from "washing out."

Soon, criticism of the school's graduates came from the field. Officers were not qualified. They did not know enough. What they did know was impractical. Dissatisfaction was rife, at the school and in the field. Change became inevitable. The result was, first, that new training manuals—new textbooks—were prepared, written by personnel at the school. Then came a broadening of the curriculum. Subjects such as aircraft recognition, defense against chemical attack, even a course in English grammar, were included. New instructors were selected, old ones transferred. "Wash out" procedures were liberalized: a man low in academics was given an opportunity to vindicate himself before a board of officers, sometimes given a second chance, occasionally permitted to pass because of outstanding qualities or experience.

Criticism did not cease. If anything, it was more rampant. Said the older graduates: "Things aren't as tough as they used to be. The boys now don't have to learn the ten rules for making coffee, like we did." Complaints still poured in that the men were not qualified. The school took the complaints seriously. One after another, conferences were held to determine weaknesses. Department heads were given freedom to experiment. Good and bad experiments were conducted. There was an honest attempt to determine and retain the good, to discard the bad. But the training was still not satisfactory. More time was deemed necessary. The length of the training period was extended by one-third. A regular training program for instructors was inaugurated, and great care was exercised to select good teachers and eliminate poor ones. Standards for instructors became increasingly higher, education and experience being deemed necessary prerequisites. Every new term saw a variety of changes in methods, subject-matter, and instructors.

But complaints continued unabated. Eventually, the crowning order in progressivism was issued from higher headquarters. In effect, it was this: Henceforth, first, there would be no oral, written, or implied examinations; second, there would be positively no lecturing; third, every student would be marked daily upon his achievement; and fourth, no student would be

failed unless he was proved deficient in academics, military bearing, and personality.

To the educational idealist and reformer, exhausted by social inertia, this system of command from higher authority may, indeed, appear like a heaven-sent opportunity. Unfortunately, neither the students nor the instructors were prepared for such radical departure from existing methods. The conscientious used all manner of ruses to surmount the regulation; the indifferent and indolent practically took a holiday. In effect, what actually happened was this: the great stimulating motives of patriotism and security were insufficient to give the student a desire and willingness to learn; and the same motives, plus the freedom for initiative and experimentation, failed to make good teachers out of carefully selected personnel. The result was a period of almost complete confusion, not far removed from chaos. A reversion to more orthodox methods of instruction was imperative and eventually took place.

To the observer aware of existing conflicts in educational philosophies, the parallel between the military venture and public-school educational trends was striking. If it were safe to draw conclusions, one might predict that were elementary and secondary education to be reorganized in short order, according to plans proposed by more liberal thinkers, similar chaos would surely result. One has, however, no way of knowing how far the parallel could be extended. It is conceivable that the higher training of public-school employees might enable the schools to adapt themselves more readily than did the military with their insufficiently trained personnel.

IN THE article previously referred to, Mr. Wilson stated that, with the overwhelming successes of the military, "rarely has there . . . been presented such an objective measure of the normally intangible results of teaching."[2] Apparently, this syllogism is assumed: If the instruction is good, we shall win. We won overwhelmingly. Therefore, the instruction was excellent. But does the conclusion fit the premises? How can anyone determine? Is there not as much logic in this: Good education will ensure a prosperous nation. America is the wealthiest country in the world. Therefore, America has the best education in the world. It is hard to see how any correlation can be

[2] Wilson, *op. cit.*, p. 171.

established between the quality of military instruction and military achievements. One could as easily take the opposing view; that is, had instruction been good, the great number of casualties would have been sharply reduced. One cannot say with certainty how many Air Force pilots or how many infantrymen might have been saved had they been given satisfactory training.

Furthermore, the article referred to lists twelve methods used by the army, which it is claimed were "practical in that they were successful." One raises the question again, How is this success measured? But aside from that, one may fairly ask, first, To what extent was each method used? second, If it was a good method, was it employed sufficiently? And third, If it was a bad method, how extensively was it overused? The writer does not see how any of these questions can be answered with any degree of satisfaction. It is admitted that there were evidences of all methods. For instance, there was classification of personnel, sight learning, learning by doing, use of rewards, use of competition, special instruction for the slow learner, clarification of objectives, simplification of instruction, and rating of instructors, but the use of all of these was a relative matter. For example, one of the most frequently heard criticisms from ex-servicemen was of the Army's use of their classification system; or again, one has only to read the average training manual to question the success of the attempt at simplification of instruction, the description of the simple operation "How to Drive a Nail" being so involved that it once rated comment in the *New Yorker* magazine as an example of ridiculous complexity. Again, the lament is frequently made that one of the chief causes of the appalling number of neurotics was the Army's tactless use of on-the-spot, public criticism.

Numerous studies have been made, and will continue to be made, of Army techniques. It is difficult to see, however, what value any of them will have for the professional educator. The likelihood is strong that each study will show what the writer or writers want to show. There is no denying that there were examples of excellent teaching; on the other hand, there were glaring illustrations of inexcusable techniques. The writer has seen both, not only at different schools, but within one school, but he knows no way of accurately measuring the amount of either. He cannot agree that, although the Services borrowed

[*Continued on page 56*]

Teaching Opportunities in 1946

By L. N. NICHOLAS AND MARY A. EWAN

THE continued exodus of qualified teachers from the teaching profession, together with the additional need for new teachers, tends to prolong the serious problems of supply and demand faced by the Division of Appointments, College of Education, Ohio State University. The university graduated 303 students in 1946. Of this number, 202 desired to teach and were available, leaving one-third of the graduates unavailable for teaching. Twenty-two graduates in occupational therapy and 23 graduates in fine arts were not qualified

TABLE I

PERCENTAGE OF GRADUATES OF THE COLLEGE OF EDUCATION WHO HAVE SECURED TEACHING POSITIONS IN THE LAST TEN YEARS

Year	Number of Graduates*	Number Wanting to Teach	Percentage of Applicants Who Secured Teaching Positions
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1937	411	352	77
1938	512	439	73
1939	522	452	73
1940	543	448	76
1941	439	296	85
1942	365	206	97
1943	347	194	97
1944	251	169	90
1945	306	269	97
1946	303	202	96

* The graduates who complete their work during the fall quarter of any year are counted as graduates of the following year, for it is then that they become available for placement.

for teaching. Fifty-six graduates did not wish to teach. They made a choice in favor of marriage, enlistment in the Army or Navy, graduate, research, or clerical work, or employment as a professional football player, railroad employee, draftsman, commercial artist, campfire-girl executive, professional musician, receptionist, church worker, real-estate worker, or youth leader. Four young women were unable to accept a position because of illness, and we could secure no data for two graduates.

Of those who were available, 96 per cent were placed in teaching positions. This is 1 per cent less than the corresponding figure for 1945, when there were 306 graduates and 269 who wanted to teach.

The number of new teachers trained in the College of Education and available for teaching is given for each of the past ten years in Column 2 of Table I. Column 3 lists the number wishing to teach and available for placement in the year of graduation. The number interested in securing teaching positions differs from the number graduated by an average of 63 individuals for each year. It is interesting to note that in the year 1944, in which there were the fewest graduates (251), there were 82 individuals who did not wish to teach. This is only 13 fewer than the greatest number not available in 1940, when there were 95 who did not wish to teach. The year 1940 marks the highest number of graduates in the ten-year period. The lowest number who did not wish to teach was 37 in 1945, when there were 306 graduates.

THE total number of calls received by the Division of Appointments in 1946 was 5,565. These calls came from 47 states, and 63 of them came from locations outside the United States. An analysis of the 2,404 requests for high-school teachers is given in Table II. The first column lists the subject or teaching field for which the call was given. The number of calls received for each subject as a major is noted in Column 2. The requests which involved teaching one subject only are listed in Column 3. The number of times a subject was listed as a teaching minor, or second subject, along with some other subject as a major, is given in Column 4. Columns 5, 6, 7, and 8 show the minor fields requested most frequently with each major subject.

Home economics was requested the greatest number of times (339), and it was also requested alone the greatest number of times (262), just one more than music alone (261). Other subject-matter fields following home economics in the order of number of calls received are: music (319), English (294), physical education for men (216), mathematics (201), industrial arts (181), science (167), physical education for women (160), social studies (130), fine arts (92), and languages (89). The numbers in Columns 1 and 2 indicate that there is greater opportunity for teaching only one field in the so-called special subjects, such as home economics, music, and industrial and fine arts. There were 1,462 calls for teaching one subject only. Subjects requested most frequently as second subjects are the regular academic subjects, English, science, and mathematics.

TABLE II

ANALYSIS OF HIGH-SCHOOL CALLS RECEIVED BY THE DIVISION OF APPOINTMENTS FOR THE YEAR 1946

SUBJECT OR TEACHING FIELD*	AVERAGE NUMBER OF CALLS PER YEAR			NUMBER OF TIMES OTHER SPECIFIC SUBJECTS‡ WERE CALLED FOR IN COMBINATION WITH THE SUBJECT CONSIDERED			
	Total	As a Single Subject	Combined with Other Subjects				
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Agriculture (*Ag*)	25						
Arts—							
Fine (*FA*)	92	85	7	*Mu* 3	*En* 2	*HE* 1	
Industrial (*IA*)	181	132	49	*Coach* 20	*PE* 17	*Sc* 13	*Ma* 9
Commercial (*Com*)	27	25	2	*Li* 1	*En* 1		
English—(*En*)	294	114	180	*La* 46	*SS* 29	*Sp* 25	*PE* 17
Speech (*Sp*)	22	10	12	*Dr.* 6	*En* 4	*Jo* 2	
Geography (*Ge*)	2	1	1	*SS* 1			
Home economics (*HE*)	339	262	77	*En* 29	*GS* 23	*Diet* 8	*SS* 3
Languages (*Lang*)—†	89						
French (*Fr*)	15	1	14	*En* 6	*Sp* 5	*La* 2	*SS* 2
German (*Ge*)	2	1	1	*En* 1			
Latin (*La*)	37	10	27	*En* 15	*Fr* 6	*Sp* 5	*Ma* 3
Spanish (*S*)	35	11	24	*En* 13	*La* 5	*Fr* 2	*Sc* 1
Library (*Li*)	52	49	3	*En* 2	*VA* 1§		
Mathematics (*Ma*)	201	102	99	*Sc* 57	*Coach* 25	*SS* 17	*En* 6
Music (*Mu*)	319	261	58	*En* 43	*FA* 9	*SS* 5	*Lang* 4
Nursing	10	10					
Physical education (*PE*)—							
Men	216	71	145	*Sc* 49	*Ma* 23	*SS* 22	*IA* 19
Women	160	130	30	*En* 11	*SS* 6	*Sc* 5	*FA* 1
Personnel guidance	14	14					
Science (*S*)—†	167						
Biology (*Bi*)	12	3	9	*PE* 4	*Ch* 3	*La* 1	*SS* 1
Chemistry (*Ch*)	18	8	10	*Bi* 7	*Ph* 3	*Radio* 1	*Ma* 1

TABLE II [*Continued*]

Analysis of High-School Calls Received by the Division of Appointments for the Year 1946

Subject or Teaching Field*	Average Number of Calls per Year			Number of Times Other Specific Subjects‡ Were Called for in Combination with the Subject Considered			
	Total	As a Single Subject	Combined with Other Subjects				
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Science (*S*) [*Cont.*]—†							
General science (*GS*)	93	26	67	*Ma* 35	*PE* 18	*Ph* 8	*Bi* 6
Physics (*Phy*)	44	11	33	*Ma* 15	*Bi* 7	*PE* 5	*Ch* 4
Psychology	21	21					
Special education (*SE*)	43	39	2	*Ma* 2			
Social studies (*SS*)	130	65	65	*En* 31	*PE* 8	*Sc* 6	*Lang* 3
Total	2,404	1,462					

* In the parenthesis after each subject is given the abbreviation used in Columns 5–8.
† Totals on the subgroups for languages and for science are given in italics in Column 2, but they are not included in the final total figure.
‡ Columns 5–8 show additional subjects listed on calls in Column 4.
§ *VA* is the abbreviation for visual aids.

It may be interesting to note that the Division of Appointments received 52 calls for librarians, although the Ohio State University does not train library workers. Also, the requests for teachers of special education have nearly doubled the num-

TABLE III

THE PERCENTAGES OF THE GRADUATES OF THE COLLEGE OF EDUCATION IN EACH FIELD FOR THE LAST TWO YEARS (1945–46) THAT SECURED TEACHING POSITIONS DURING THE YEAR OF GRADUATION, NUMBER OF MAJORS, AND NUMBER DESIRING TEACHING POSITIONS

Subject	Number of Majors in 1946*	Number Desiring Teaching Positions in 1946	Percentage Placed in Teaching Positions in 1946	Number of Majors in 1945	Number Desiring Teaching Positions in 1945	Percentage Placed in Teaching Positions in 1945
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Arts—						
Fine	12	7	100	28	22	81.8
Industrial	13	11	81.9	9	7	85.7
Commercial education	9	6	100	10	8	87.5
Elementary education	87	71	98.6	91	75	97.3
English	23	12	83.4	36	26	84.6
Speech	10	3	100	7	4	50
Geography	.....	.....	.....	3	1	100
Home economics	1	0	.....	3	3	100
Languages—						
French	5	3	33.3	8	8	75
German	1	0	.....	2	2	100
Latin	1	1	100	5	2	100
Spanish	8	5	100	11	9	88.8
Mathematics	6	3	100	8	7	100
Music	22	11	81.9	35	22	95.4
Nursing education	6	3	100	11	8	100
Physical education—						
Men	10	8	100	1	1	100
Women	17	10	100	21	14	100
Psychology	6	4	50	9	5	60
Science—						
Biology	13	8	87	6	2	100
Chemistry	2	1	100	.....	.....	.....
General science	4	1	100	1	0	.....
Social studies	44	23	87	42	26	92
Total graduating	303	.....	.....	306	.....	.....
Total qualified to teach	258	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Total desiring to teach	202	.....	.....	242	.....	.....
Total interested in securing teaching or other work	244	.....	.....	269	.....	.....

* Double majors are counted in each field.

ber of calls received in 1945. Calls for speech, personnel, and guidance have also increased.

Table III lists the number of graduates in each field for the years 1946 and 1945. For 1946 the figures indicate that only a little more than half the number graduating in the fields of English, social studies, and music wished to teach. A comparison of Tables II and III shows the great differences in number graduating, in number available, and in the number of calls received in each particular field. Three of the fields in which there were the fewest graduates, mathematics, science, and home economics, are three of the subjects for which the greatest number of calls were received.

THERE were 1,188 calls received in 1946 for teachers who were to be employed in areas below the high school. The calls classified according to the divisions of the lower schools are shown in the following table:

	Number of Calls
Nursery schools	18
Kindergarten	102
Primary (Grades I, II, III)	529
Intermediate (Grades IV, V, VI)	421
Junior high (Grades VI, VII)	87
Building teacher-principal	31
	1,188

The greatest number of calls was received for teachers of primary grades (529), with teachers of the intermediate grades (421) next in demand. The number of requests for kindergarten and nursery-school teachers is indicative of the increased interest in establishing classes on these levels. The 1945 report listed 8 calls for nursery-school teachers and 41 calls for kindergarten teachers, while in 1946 there were 18 calls for nursery-school teachers and 102 for kindergarten teachers. There were 31 calls for elementary-school teacher-principals. In each of these instances, the teacher was to teach a full-time schedule (usually in the intermediate grades), in addition to carrying the administrative responsibilities of the building principal.

Eighty-seven students whose major had been elementary-school education were graduated in 1946. Sixteen of these graduates did not wish to teach. Those remaining were placed. All could have received salaries above the average except that some of them chose to take smaller salaries in order to accept positions in the communities in which their families lived, or made their decision for other personal reasons.

The need for teachers in the elementary schools is especially serious. The number of calls for teachers which came to the Division of Appointments of this University alone in 1946 was 37 per cent more than was the number received in 1945. Another sign of the extreme teacher shortage is shown by the fact that three-fourths of the persons who called said they would employ inexperienced teachers, although previously they had preferred to employ teachers having several years of experience.

THERE is definite evidence that salaries are higher than they have been in any previous year. It was not necessary for any well-qualified teacher to accept less than $1,800 if she were free to consider any location. In many cases, a cost-of-living amount, varying from $100 to $300, was added to the original salary. Salaries for teachers of special subjects usually started above the $2,000 mark, and in some cases reached $2,800 and $3,000. Six Ohio State University graduates were placed with the Dependent School Service in Europe at salaries of $3,725 plus transportation expenses. Ten were offered contracts but four withdrew their applications. Graduates of the Ohio State University have been placed, and assisted in securing positions, in Hawaii, Alaska, South America, England, Germany, Korea, and Japan. Successful experience is usually necessary for foreign positions and advanced degrees are sometimes requested.

AS IN the past several years, the Negro graduates of the College of Education found a limited demand for their services as teachers. Only 5 requests for colored elementary-school teachers were received from Ohio schools; 12 requests were received from other states. Calls for colored high-school teachers in Ohio totaled only 3; outside of Ohio, 30.

College vacancies for colored personnel resulted in 132 calls during 1946. Only two were from institutions in Ohio; 130 were from other states, largely in the "deep South." The greatest difficulty in making recommendations for these calls was the lack of colored candidates with advanced degrees in the particular subject-matter fields requested. Many colored candidates also refused college positions in favor of other types of employment because of the extremely low salaries which the teaching positions paid. The salary range was from $1,500 to $3,000, with many of the positions listed at $2,000 or below.

THE Division of Appointments received 172 calls for administrative positions during 1946. The vacancies reported were in the following divisions:

College administration	38	Secondary-school principals	44
Superintendency	29	Laboratory-school principals	17
Executive heads	27	Elementary-school principals	17

In filling the position of superintendent, school systems, particularly in other states, show a definite preference for candidates with the Ph.D. degree and administrative experience.

The unprecedented demand from all parts of the country for college instructors was a result of the heavy enrollment of veterans in colleges and universities. The great majority of these calls were for instructors in the various beginning college classes. Many administrative officers stated frankly that these were temporary positions, the tenure of which depended upon the college enrollments. The Division of Appointments received college calls from every state in the nation except Nevada. Ohio ranked first with 229 calls, with other high-ranking states in the following order:

New York	156	West Virginia	101
Pennsylvania	135	Michigan	95

The majority of calls fell in the various college subjects:

English	258	Critic teacher	100
Mathematics	117	Psychology	98
Education	105	Chemistry	93
Commerce	104	Physical education	91

THIS division recorded 5,565 calls during 1946, compared to 3,457 in 1941, 2,235 in 1940, and 1,908 in 1936. In addition, many other inquiries were made concerning possible candidates late in 1946 when the supply in various fields had been completely exhausted. If all of these inquiries had been tabulated as calls, the total would be well over six thousand.

All indications point to the prospect that the extreme shortage of teachers will continue during 1947. This will be particularly true in the elementary-school fields, and the high-school fields such as commerce, home economics, physics, chemistry, mathematics, art, music, physical education for women, psychology, library work and, probably, English, will still need many teachers.

Salaries will continue to increase during 1947. Schools

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Progressive Ideals in Practice: Teachers' Alibi and Administrators' Headache

By WELLINGTON G. FORDYCE

A RECENT article summarizes very well the problems of teachers trained in progressive methods who enter the public schools and promptly deny the training which they have received.[1] The criticism contained in this article is founded on facts which cannot be ignored. There is another aspect of the problem of putting progressive methods into effect in our schools. This is the viewpoint of the administrator, who has quite a different perspective from the teacher's.

Each year the superintendent hopefully employs as many newly trained teachers coming from the colleges as his school system can absorb. His hope is that these teachers will put into action the progressive ideas and methods that he knows are being encouraged in teacher-training schools. By Christmas, the same superintendent will unhappily admit that in most cases the beginners teach as conservatively as the veterans who are content with a basic textbook, a fixed schedule, and the old equipment of bolted-down furniture, accompanied by a rigid and inhuman discipline. Whose is the responsibility for this situation? It is not the teacher's alone, nor the administrator's, nor that of the teachers' college, and, above all, it is not the unwillingness of any community to accept a progressive program.

In most universities, the college of education is still in the doghouse. There is a feeling among the members of the other academic departments that scholarship is not quite so demanding in education as in history, mathematics, or science. Perhaps this is true in some universities. To counterbalance such a smug charge, the academicians need only examine their own teaching methods, materials, and general service to society. This attitude of superiority has been encouraged by the Harvard Report and the activities of men of Robert Hutchins' thinking—exclusive, ivory tower, in the best of medieval tradition. The Harvard Report is beautifully written—but not written in the service of public mass education. The group of educators subscribing to a return to the liberal-arts tradition, under the guise of general

[1] Rogers, Evelyn Gibbs. "Progressive Ideals in Practice: the Teacher's Dilemma," EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH BULLETIN, XXV (October, 1946), pp. 178–82.

education, are doing our country a great disservice. The colleges of education and the public schools feel this pressure. The accrediting associations still force their members to meet certain requirements of a quantitative nature that chain all of secondary education to college wheels—and particularly to those of specialists in subject-matter fields. One is surprised that we are not once more required to bow down before "transfer of training" in Latin and abstract mathematics. For their attempt to break these bonds, teacher-training institutions should be commended. Admitted is the lack of field experience on the part of some of their professors. Admitted is the attempt on the part of a few college instructors to become almost as stuffy as the academicians. The great contribution of the teacher-training institutions has been to make our public schools better serve the people.

TEACHERS always have an alibi for failure to achieve their goals. So do administrators. In their attempt to put progressive ideals into practice, both groups have failed to meet the issue. Most of the problems an administrator faces in the effort to encourage the development of more progressive methods of instruction are related to teachers. If the community is informed in advance of a special plan, it is usually willing to put up with a lot—even incompetence on the part of the teachers—if convinced that it will provide better opportunities for the children. In fact, the problem of public relations is the smallest problem that the administrator faces. Parents are disturbed, because they have known longer than the psychologists that traditional methods of instruction are far from satisfactory. "They can't read, they can't write, and they won't let them talk" is a common reaction of parents. They are usually willing to try an experiment.

Regrettably, most teachers welcome the traditional pattern in the schools. It is easier to follow a fixed schedule—English, 9:00–9:30; arithmetic, 9:30–10:00—than it is to provide the same experience in a functional, interesting manner through an activity program. They can sketch over their assignments before class, make use of a textbook, give "grades" objectively (?), and be free in the evenings. There is no necessity for any careful planning of lessons and activities. They are through at 4 P.M., and parents can easily be dealt with in a few

minutes. After all, a parent is not an expert on education, and if you tell him that Johnny cannot seem to learn to add or to read because his attention is poor, you are not apt to be challenged on the ground that you are not doing your job as a teacher. Johnny is apt to get paddled instead. Then there is the matter of the single-salary schedule. Elementary teachers are paid the same salary as high-school teachers for the same training and experience, but they do not have those extra assignments after school and evenings.

The superintendent and principal are constantly discouraged by the complete inertia of the teaching staff. One may try a democratic organization, attempt to get teachers to offer suggestions, and give them freedom to try out their ideas in instruction—but how many will do it? Teachers often are afraid that lack of results will bring criticism of their ideas. They have no conception of how grateful principal or superintendent would be for initiative and courage on the part of his teachers in trying something new.

Teachers' alibis are as numerous as the leaves in autumn. They have no time to plan anything new. Progressive teachers have tried it and it will not work. The range of intelligence quotient is too great in any room. They must have selected, homogeneous classes. The class cannot be progressive if it has over twenty-five students in it. Some of these children should have been failed. The furniture prevents it. They have no sand table. It is not right to expect a teacher to spend time outside the classroom on her work. Our books are inadequate—the list grows every minute! These things are true if teaching is not to be considered a profession. If it is a profession, it has the same obligations as other professions—it must grow and improve through extra study and work. Otherwise, we can use drill masters and memoriter methods of the Middle Ages forever.

THOSE who plan to enter the teaching profession need to consider the conditions under which they will probably work. Classes are not always held to twenty-five pupils or fewer. Building facilities may not permit it. Pupils are not selected—they are the children of all the people. This is a normal situation, wholesome in every way. Individual differences are marked in any public-school group. These differences

are known to teachers and must be provided for in instruction. Principals lack leadership and are conservative. This is an unfortunate tradition that exists because teacher-training institutions have only recently been training a small number of teachers to become principals. Too many principals are simply glorified clerks instead of educational leaders. The same criticism can be made of superintendents, who are usually ex-high-school teachers without elementary training. They are the executive officers of school boards, and often they are such poor leaders that they carry out only the policies urged by local pressure groups. Other teachers in the profession do not wish to exert themselves to do any sort of research or experiment. These conservative teachers with limited college training, or with a year or two in some liberal-arts college—but holding life certificates—are discouraging influences on those entering the profession. The conditions under which teachers must work are not always pleasant.

However, a teacher with progressive ideals, initiative, and imagination can do the things he or she has been taught. Movable furniture is desirable, but progressive methods can be used without it. If school libraries are lacking or inadequate, there are libraries and other local sources of books and information available. Supplementary materials can be obtained if one seeks them diligently. Why does there seem to be a lack of materials, books, and equiment? One reason, perhaps, is that the superintendent gets discouraged when he purchases such items only to listen to teachers' explanations that they cannot possibly undertake anything new because something else mentioned in last summer-school's classes is not available. To teach, you must like and study the children in your care. This does not take special equipment. It takes a true professional teaching approach. There is sufficient evidence available to prove that progressive methods will work with unselected children, and without an ideal school environment. Every school has some excellent teacher who is using progressive methods. If a doubt exists in your mind, visit a few schools. The principal will tell you who they are, or if not the principal, the superintendent can. Dale's classification of those in the teaching profession will provide you a method of evaluating your place in it.[2]

[2] Dale, Edgar. "Don't Feel Sorry for Teachers!", *The News Letter*, XII (December, 1946), pp. 1–4.

EDITORIAL COMMENT

How Does Your School Measure Up?

From one point of view, the major function of the school is that of socializing the individual, that is, preparing him to take his place as a good citizen in a democracy. The school, of course, shares this function with the family, the church, and other agencies of society.

The opposite of the socialized young person is the delinquent child or the youthful criminal. To the extent that these exist in our society, our educational agencies have failed to fulfill their most important function.

It is common knowledge that delinquency and crime among young people have increased greatly. The F.B.I. is authority for the statement that, during the first nine months of 1946, arrests of young persons under 21 accounted for 50.1 per cent of all auto thefts, 42 per cent of all burglaries, and 28.5 per cent of all robberies.

At the National Conference on Juvenile Delinquency which met in Washington in November, one of the working groups was devoted to the school. It formulated the following ten questions representing standards by which a school can judge the effectiveness of its own program in the prevention of delinquency.

Is the school organized to evaluate the individual differences of its pupils and to provide work suited to their abilities and interests? Are the teachers in the school trained to know the earliest symptoms of delinquency? Are the teachers concerned not only with the educational program of their pupils but also with their conduct, habits, and attitudes, and are they willing to assume responsibility for understanding and helping the least fortunate and possibly least attractive of their pupils? Does the school make adequate provision for identifying and understanding pupils, and helping them adjust? Is provision made for visiting teachers, psychologists, school physicians, and other specialists? Does the school provide guidance and counseling service for all pupils? Is the school concerned with the moral growth of the pupils and with providing proper leisure-time influences? Is provision made for supervised use of play-

ground and school plant after school hours? Are the teachers properly prepared to take their place in the modern school, and is the class size such as to make effective individual work possible? Does the school assign its best teachers to classes in delinquency areas and underprivileged neighborhoods?

If these be valid standards—and there is excellent reason to believe that they are—they are much more important than many of the traditional standards, such as number of books in the library, number of Masters' degrees held by the teaching staff, standings in the state scholarship tests, and so on. Measured by these standards, how good is your school?

R. H. E.

IN THE belief that education must play an increasing rôle in forging world understanding, the United States Office of Education has co-operated with the United Nations Information Office in preparing a United Nations Education Kit.

Each kit contains a reprint of "Building a United World," a study guide on the United Nations in war and peace; 15 copies of "The United Nations Today and Tomorrow"; 15 copies of "The United Nations—Peoples and Countries"; and large picture charts.

Teaching materials and visual aids in the Kit may be used with high-school or college classes as the basis for a unit of study on the United Nations. The Kit, which includes a sufficient number of copies of the pamphlets for groups of approximately 30 students, may also be used effectively with adult clubs and discussion groups.

"The United Nations Today and Tomorrow" provides material for study. "The United Nations—Peoples and Countries" discusses the 37 nations in terms of geography, history, cultural uniqueness, political system, economy, and wartime rôle. Student activities, supplementary readings, and discussion questions are included in the "Education for Victory" reprint.

John W. Studebaker, U. S. Commissioner of Education, believes that "The winning of the peace demands a citizenry trained to clarify its ideas on the problems of a rapidly shrinking world. Education for world understanding should begin in our schools." The United Nations Education Kit should prove a valuable tool in promoting such education.

R. H. E.

READINGS

Books to Read

CARMICHAEL, LEONARD, editor. *Manual of Child Psychology*. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1946. viii+1,068 pp.

This book carries on the pattern set by the *Handbook of Child Psychology* (Clark University Press, 1933) and brings it up to date. It is a monumental compendium of fact and theory by leading authorities in the field. Nearly everything is here that one might expect.

How is it put together? In various ways: "The editor has not attempted any modification of the separate styles or points of view of the individual chapters." Some of them summarize relevant facts bearing on the conventional descriptive concepts of psychology: emotion, language, physical growth. Other chapters deal with specific explanatory constructs: maturation, learning, environmental influences. Others deal with special groups: neonates, adolescents, primitive children, the feeble-minded, the gifted. Still others deal with techniques. And one chapter shows that a particular psychological "school" serves to illuminate the period of childhood. Perhaps no harm is done that these several approaches are not grouped in any rational fashion.

Sprightliness of style is not to be looked for in a manual of this sort; nor is it found here. Sometimes technical terminology is a trifle too "high" even for a work of this character. But every chapter is actually well organized and well written—an almost unique achievement in such a collection of papers. The bibliographies alone would make the book indispensable to the advanced student in this field.

HORACE B. ENGLISH

WASHBURN, RUTH WENDELL. *Re-education in a Nursery Group: a Study in Clinical Psychology*. Washington, D. C.: Society for Research in Child Development, National Research Council, 1944. iii+175 pp.

This compact and considered study of the history of the Nursery at the Clinic of Child Development at Yale University is of more than merely local importance. "The Nursery" is an integral part of the Yale Psycho-Clinic. Its purpose is to furnish a regular nursery group in which children brought for testing and study may be placed for observation or retraining with children who present no unusual difficulties. The group also provides opportunity for parents to observe their own children in a relatively objective fashion while they are reacting to other children of their approximate age as well as to adults with special training in child education. Some children were placed in the Nursery on only one occasion, others were there over several periods or even for weeks at a time, depending upon the prescription of the psychologist.

Three therapeutic levels were recognized by the workers: first, the group whose difficulties arose simply because the parents did not know anything about children; second, a group more difficult to define, which consisted of those individuals whose more obvious emotional relations were upset; and third, a group "made up of those individuals who were more fundamentally

disturbed and who needed psychiatric assistance." Of course, the groups overlapped and could only be approximately differentiated.

To give a complete account of this book would require many pages, it is so valuable for teachers and clinicians without regard to the age groups with which they are fundamentally concerned. Many very useful general principles and techniques are described and illustrated by well-written case summaries. The reviewer is particularly impressed by the intelligent manner in which the learning situations provided in such a plan as this were utilized for the benefit of children, parents, clinicians, and nursery staff, and for the accumulation and verification of general research data.

EMILY L. STOGDILL

MORT, PAUL R. *Principles of School Administration.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1946. xiv+338 pp.

Mr. Mort has set down in a single volume a multitude of administrative principles which have been generally dealt with in a piecemeal way in previous school literature. As background for thinking, the author summarizes recent trends in educational psychology, lists twenty-five socioeconomic conditions of modern times, and reports some of the more important research findings in education which must be taken into account by the administrator if he is to make intelligent, democratic decisions.

The latter half of the book discusses the use of "common sense" in school administration in contrast to the unimaginative, rule-of-thumb, and sometimes unthinking way in which many American schools are operated. Decisions must be made, says Mort, in accordance with the local conditions of the community, the temper of the school staff, and the needs of the children of the school. These common-sense considerations are described as "humanitarian," "prudential," and what might be called "temperamental."

A summary of "The 101 Patterns of Educational Practices" is included, together with sample school codes, an administrator's reading list, and an index to visual aids to supplement the material of the book itself.

Written primarily for school administrators, the book should also be read by teachers in service and in training. Since the ultimate power behind the school administration is the public itself, as Mort somewhat laboriously points out, the content of the book suggests the need for a readable volume for the public on how our schools are operated.

ROBERT W. WAGNER

UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS, INSTITUTE OF LATIN AMERICAN STUDIES. *Intellectual Trends in Latin America.* Austin, Texas: University of Texas Press, 1945. 148 pp.

This pamphlet contains twelve papers by outstanding scholars, read at a conference on Intellectual Trends in Latin America held at the University of Texas on April 13 and 14, 1945. It inaugurates a new series to be published by the University on subjects of interest in the Latin-American field. The papers in the present volume include:

"Trends in Latin American Historiography," by William S. Robinson, professor emeritus of the University of Illinois

"The Status of the Science of Government in Latin America," by Russell H. Fitzgibbon, of the University of California at Los Angeles

"The Contemporary Latin American Theatre," by Theodore Apstein, of Mexico City
"The Foundations of Musical Culture in Latin America," by Gilbert Chase, supervisor of music, National Broadcasting Company University of the Air
"Tendencies in Philosophy in Mexico Today" (text both in Spanish and in English), by Samuel Ramos, of the National University of Mexico
"Intellectual Activities of Spanish Refugees in Latin America," by Fernando de los Rios, of the New School of Social Research
"Problems and Trends of Education in the Latin American Republic," by Isaac L. Kandel, of Columbia University
"Some Recent Developments in Economic Thought in Mexico," by Eastin Nelson, of the University of Texas
"The Status of Sociology in Latin America," by Rex D. Hopper, of the University of Texas
"Trends in Central American Literature," by Martin E. Erickson, of Louisiana State University
"On the Value of Spanish-American Poetry," by Antonio Castro Leal, former rector, National University of Mexico
"Contemporary Trends in Brazilian Literature," by the Brazilian novelist, Erico Verissimo

Mr. Kandel's comments on educational trends will interest the readers of this publication more than most of the other papers in the volume. He sees a ferment in education in Latin America, but he thinks it will be some time before the obstacles in the way of serious changes can be overcome. These obstacles include inadequate means of communication, social attitudes and traditions, economic and political conditions, the composition of the population, and religious influences. There have been, and still are, highly competent leaders of educational thought in Latin America, but they seldom have possessed the capacity for political leadership which would enable them to translate their theories into practice.

The remaining articles are similarly fundamental in their approach and merit reading. Senhor Verissimo even has packed into the few pages allotted to him a thumb-nail history of Brazil containing facts which every American should know.

HARVEY WALKER

BERGSON, ABRAM. *The Structure of Soviet Wages: a Study in Socialist Economics.* Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1944. xvi+255 pp.

By what principles are wages determined in a socialist economy? Does socialism mean equality of incomes? How different are the problems of allocation and maximization of resources which confront the entrepreneur in a free-market economy from those which face the administrator in a planned economy? And do the principles which seem to govern distribution under capitalism have validity under socialism? These and many other questions of historical and practical interest for both the lay and technical reader are illumined by Mr. Bergson's careful research into the structure of wages in the Soviet economy. Both real and money wage differentials have always been characteristic under the Soviets, with a trend toward wider spreads between the highest- and lowest-paid groups since 1928. Socialist wage principles, wage administration, and a discussion of the theoretical and policy-making aspects of the whole problem of equalitarianism are discussed, in addition to statistical analysis of wage variations in both the Soviet Union and the United States for comparable periods and industries. The general conclusion is that "capitalist" principles of distribution are also socialist principles; and the

socialist administrator must necessarily be responsive to the differences in skill, training, and aptitude which govern worker productivity for both wage and salaried workers, if his aim is to economize his resources and maximize production.

The reader will be impressed by the ease with which the author moves about in the data and literature. His careful delineation of the statistical techniques is equally reassuring. One could wish for more information about the mechanics of wage determination in the Soviet economy, especially the function of the trade unions. More studies of this caliber are needed in an area where too frequently, *in vacuo*, more heat than light is generated.

ROBERT L. ARONSON

BRACKETT, FRANK P. *Granite and Sagebrush.* Los Angeles, California: Ward Ritchie Press, 1944. xvi+251 pp.

In choosing for this work a title suggested by natural features of the country in which Pomona College is located, the author has followed the trend of the day. The name of the book gives no indication that it covers the history of the first fifty years of Pomona College. So interestingly has Mr. Brackett portrayed the struggle of a small college to survive and to meet the ever increasing needs of an expanding educational program that the reader is soon completely identified with the college. Presumably the author's purpose is to write for a limited group of readers who, in one way or another, have been connected with Pomona College. However, in this story there is the spirit of the pioneer. California was still new when Pomona was founded in 1888, and the location chosen for the college was a none too promising site located outside the small city of Pomona.

The reader will find the book written in a sympathetic and, at times, indulgent manner by a professor emeritus who has been intimately associated with the college since its inception. It will prove both interesting and informative to those interested in the development of higher education and to many lay readers.

H. B. WYMAN
Phoenix Junior College

STRUCK, F. THEODORE. *Vocational Education for a Changing World.* New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1945. vi+550 pp.

The student who looks for a presentation of the case for vocational education that will demand for it a place in social esteem consistent with its importance in life will be only moderately satisfied with this volume; that is to say, the author's treatment contains little that is new in the philosophy of vocational *life* to explain modern needs for vocational *education* or to justify what has thus far been achieved in that field, excepting as told in the multiplicity of federally subsidized programs here briefly described. In this latter respect, the volume is desirably comprehensive, although necessarily brief. Its contents cover the extended and complicated governmental provisions for vocational education from 1917 to the time of the author's death in 1943, a tremendous undertaking which is, on the whole, well done.

The modern American has learned to accept his country's phenomenal productivity in arming the world for the life-and-death struggle from which

this country has fortunately emerged triumphant, with a mixture of pride—and complacency. He has viewed with growing amazement his country's progressive achievement of that task; but, after all, he has known right along it could and would be done—so what? However, few Americans realize how largely that challenge was met by means of these programs of productive education, federally promoted during the years beginning in 1918. Realization of this fact should be held firmly in mind in reading Mr. Struck's book and in considering continued needs for vocational education in the struggle for peace that lies ahead.

WILLIAM H. STONE

EARHART, MARY. *Frances Willard: from Prayers to Politics.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1944. x+418 pp.

This is an interesting historical contribution to the understanding of the development of women's civic consciousness in the United States. It also shows the ability to act on that knowledge exemplified in the life of a great woman of the second half of the nineteenth century. The subtitle, "From Prayers to Politics," is an apt characterization of the contents of the book. Miss Earhart has not only written an interesting biography but has also carefully documented each chapter with references to the original manuscripts and to government and state documents, college bulletins, journals, newspapers, and books, as well as to the writings of Frances Willard herself and to a few of the pamphlets of the W.C.T.U. There is a useful, although not complete, index.

The women's movements which culminated and reinforced each other in the nineteenth century might be summarized as follows: the formal education of women in colleges and universities; the adult-education movements, such as Chautauqua, in which more women than men took part; the education which came through the experiences of women in the protestant churches; and education in organization through volunteer services during the Civil War. All of these types of education found their expression in the many and vigorous women's organizations of the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries.

Miss Earhart gives excellent descriptions of the women's movements. She omits comments, however, on two points concerning which the reviewer—as one who heard of them from those who were participants—can be a witness. The first comment is concerning the emotional state of mind in many, many families concerning alcoholism. At the end of the Civil War, not only had there been a terrible decimation of the young men of the nation, but many of those who came home were changed men. The awful rigors of that war sent back to the homes and communities neurotics and psychopaths, and other sick men to whom alcoholism became an escape. Sherwood Anderson's *Winesburg, Ohio,* is one of the classic descriptions of that unhappy sequence. The women had learned to pray in their special weekly prayer meetings. There they learned to express themselves with force and often with beauty of language. They found that the prayer meeting could be transferred to the street corner or to the saloon and thus the Prayer Crusades of 1873 and 1874 had their beginnings.

Another thing which the women learned in their churches was the collection and use of small pieces of money. Pennies and nickels became the

foundation for the missionary work of the churches. The important fact for women's education was that the actual collections had been made, and the accounting had been supervised, by women. What they learned here proved of great value later in the financing of the Women's Christian Temperance Union and other organizations of women.

Upon the ground swell of the civic interests of the American women, and with the knowledge and power developing within their organizations as the result of their increased education and experience, Frances Willard appeared as an inspired and gifted leader. Miss Earhart's description of the "glowing personality" of Frances Willard, the influences of her family and friends, her own intelligent reaction to the great movements of the day, and her social awareness—all of these form the basis of a story of one of the greatest women of the second half of the nineteenth century.

ESTHER ALLEN GAW

HENNE, FRANCES, AND PRITCHARD, MARGARET. *The Librarian and the Teacher of Home Economics.* Chicago: American Library Association, 1945. vi+63 pp.

This is the fourth of the series, "Experimenting Together," and a worthy addition to the previously issued volumes which deal with the fields of English, science, and music, respectively. Herein, home economics is treated in the broad meaning. It is no longer the simple sewing and cooking of former days but includes home planning, consumer education, child care, nutrition, vocations in home economics, personal and family adjustments, and so on.

It is primarily a description of an experiment, the redecoration of the school library by the home-economics class, which was undertaken at the Laboratory School of the University of Chicago. Though it was initiated by the class in home economics, it grew so that it involved the entire school and reached into the homes. Herein lie the greatest interest and value of the project.

Two appendixes are included, the first containing "A Core Collection of Books for Home Economics," and the second a list of sixty books of fiction dealing with individual, family, and social relationships.

RUTH E. SEEGER

Child Growth and Development Emphases in Teacher Education. New York: American Association of Teachers Colleges, 1944. 142 pp. (Prepared by the 1943-44 Teachers College Collaborators in Child Growth and Development).

This is a report of seven collaborators from different teacher-training institutions working together over a year's time. They sought to interrelate and synthesize the facts and theories which they considered important for effective teaching from the fields of genetics, biochemistry, physiology, neurology, psychology, psychoanalysis, psychiatry, anthropology, and sociology.

Parts I and II of the report are introductory. Part III outlines and briefly discusses the basic generalizations concerning human development, growth, and behavior which teachers should know. Part IV discusses and illustrates developmental tasks typically met in school. Part V describes techniques that will help a teacher meet his responsibilities for guiding children. Part VI deals with means for implementing this report in teacher-training institutions, and an appendix reviews teaching films useful in instructional

programs oriented about this report. Very good selected bibliographies are cited throughout.

The report does not try to suggest needed courses or the organization of course content. The outlines do, however, provide worth-while sources for judging the completeness and pattern of emphasis of present curricular offerings.

F. P. ROBINSON

BLIVEN, BRUCE, AND MEZERIK, A. G., editors. *What the Informed Citizen Needs to Know.* New York: Duell, Sloan and Pearce, 1943. xiii+377 pp.

Twenty-two brief essays are divided unequally between the captions "America and the World" and "Americans at Home." Appendix I contains the text of several important documents, including "The United Nations Charter," "The Atlantic Charter," the "G.I. Bill of Rights" and a mosaic "Creed for Americans," built up of trenchant excerpts from President Roosevelt's messages and speeches. Appendix II furnishes a considerable bibliography. Much of the matter, since it was written before the cessation of hostilities in 1945, will seem to the citizen seeking information now, somewhat out of date. If the names of Bowles, Stettinius, and Wallace are still important, it is with an importance of a different kind, so rapidly has the world moved. Especially is this true of the first section which treats of our world relations. Especially does Berge in "Our Relations with Russia" seem remote from the stresses of 1946. On the side of "Americans at Home," Wallace presents the thesis of his little volume, *Sixty Million Jobs*, in "Jobs for All" much more briefly and much less persuasively. Some of the others, Abrams in "Good Houses for Everybody," Parran in "Health is Everybody's Business," and McWilliams in "The Problem of Minorities," have things to say that are important now and are likely to remain so for some time to come. Perhaps the most enlightening article of all is Bliven's "Science and the American Future," especially if backed up with Senator O'Mahoney's on "Patents and Monopolies." The handy collection of documents in Appendix I will, however, probably be the "best value" of the book for the reader of 1947 and after.

WARNER F. WOODRING

HOLLIS, ERNEST V. *Toward Improving Ph.D. Programs.* Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1945. xii+204 pp.

The purpose of this study, which was made for the Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education, is well expressed in the title. The investigation was guided by "two fundamental assumptions of the author," neither of which "is fully accepted by a majority of all graduate faculties."

> The first defines the graduate school of arts and sciences as an unspecialized professional institution, the primary responsibility of which is to help doctoral candidates acquire the basic education needed for such scholarly careers as placement data show they tend to follow. . . . The second . . . holds that members of graduate faculties should work with students individually and in groups on the basis of their vocational purposes and in keeping with their ascertainable aptitudes and backgrounds (pp. vii-viii).

Chapter I provides an historical account of the forces which have helped shape doctoral work. Four periods are considered: before 1876 (when Johns Hopkins was founded); 1876-1900 (the "Later Pioneering Period");

1900–18 (the "Era of Standardization"); and 1918–45 ("Expansion and Changing Purpose"). Particularly noteworthy is the account of the social forces which since 1918 have affected the rôle of the graduate school. The student body has increased greatly in size, range of background and ability, and professional objectives. We can no longer expect the majority of Ph.D.'s to go into positions of research and university (as distinguished from college) teaching. During the same period, nonacademic agencies of research have increased greatly in importance: the annual budget for research by the chemical industries alone is equal to the amount spent in 1939-40 by the universities for all research. As a result of these and other forces, the graduate school has been driven "in the direction of becoming an unspecialized professional school for scholarly workers in general" (page 33).

Chapters II and III constitute an elaborate analysis of the unemployment of 22,509 persons living in September, 1940, who received the Ph.D. degree between 1930–31 and 1939–40. These include all the persons who received the degree from 94 of the 96 institutions in the country which conferred it during the decade. In 13 tables the data is analyzed by institution, department of specialization, year of award, region of employment, nature of employing institution, and character of duties performed. One section of the third chapter, containing three additional tables, is devoted to a comparison of the Ed.D. and the Ph.D. in education. Only one or two of the generalizations to which the analysis leads can be mentioned here. Of Ph.D.'s gainfully employed, approximately 65 per cent are professors; 20 per cent, workers in industrial research; 10 per cent, government employees; and 5 per cent, workers in pre-collegiate education. Of those employed in colleges and universities, 80 per cent are engaged primarily in teaching, 15 per cent in research, and 5 per cent in administration.

The next three chapters quote and summarize suggestions made by lay employers, academic employers, and graduates in active service as to how Ph.D. programs might be improved. While a great variety of opinions is expressed, there is wide agreement that programs have been too narrowly technical.

The final chapter contains the author's suggestions for improving programs, only a few of which can be indicated here. He would have "all requirements for the degree . . . shaped by the vocational goals the individual is pursuing at the time" (page 176). Possession of a Bachelor's or Master's degree would not of itself qualify a person for matriculation for the Ph.D.; on the other hand, a qualified person would be admitted even if he did not have a degree. Each institution should determine for itself "the number and nature of doctoral programs (if any) it may profitably offer" (page 177). "Thinking at the graduate level, as at any other, has so much physiology and sociology in it that the whole person and his environment should be considered in planning and conducting a program of studies, or in appraising progress in it" (page 190). The surest way to bring about desirable changes in the structure and function of the graduate school is to get the faculty working at problems which reach beyond departmental lines. Every major field of study should "use a seminar or other means to point up the social philosophy and broader purposes that should guide creative workers in the area" (page 190). Instead of requiring two foreign languages of all

students, we should require each candidate to show adequate skill in those techniques—foreign languages, use of the library, statistics, logic, and so on—which are appropriate to his program. An adequate personnel program of a type appropriate to mature students is essential, and can best be provided in most institutions by enlarging the functions of the graduate dean.

To this reviewer these recommendations seem to be eminently sound. But the chief value of the book lies in its functional and realistic approach to the problem of graduate education, and its analysis of a large body of data. This book will be invaluable to students and practitioners of graduate education.

R. H. ECKELBERRY

* * *

Teaching Opportunities in 1946

[*Continued from page 41*]

offering the most attractive salaries will be at an advantage in employing the limited supply of candidates. Undoubtedly, the most important factor in interesting a larger number of capable, young persons in entering the teaching profession is the possibility of higher salaries. Communities throughout the state and the government of Ohio must continue to make a great effort to increase the salaries of teachers. [Vol. XXVI, No. 2]

A Further Note on Military Instruction

[*Continued from page 33*]

professional educators' techniques, they "made them work in a fashion far surpassing any achievement we can boast."[3] If any judgment were to be made, it would be this: The military struggled along, perhaps even muddled along, sometimes using outworn and faulty methods, sometimes going overboard with new and unproved techniques, using no definite, clear-cut pattern of education. If any commendation of military instruction is in order, the writer believes it should be for the frequent demonstration of willingness to experiment with what promised to be better ways of training personnel. [Vol. XXVI, No. 2]

[3] Wilson, *op. cit.*, p. 177.